

## AN ASYMPTOTIC EXPANSION FOR THE COEFFICIENTS OF SOME POWER SERIES II: LAGRANGE INVERSION

Edward A. BENDER

*University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92093, USA*

L. Bruce RICHMOND\*

*University of Waterloo, Waterloo, Ontario N2L 3G1, Canada*

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Let  $A(x)$  be a formal power series with rapidly growing coefficients and let  $F(x)$  be analytic and zero at  $x=0$ . We develop asymptotic expansions for the coefficients of  $A^{-1}(x)$  and  $A(F(x))$ . Applications are made to graphs, permutations, and set partitions.

### 1. Introduction

In [2] one of us proved a theorem which makes it a simple matter to determine asymptotic expansions for analytic functions of a variety of formal power series. Here we establish two related theorems. The first has applications to Lagrange inversion. The second deals with a formal power series of an analytic function.

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $A(x)$  be a formal power series with coefficients  $a_n$  where  $a_0 = 0$  and  $a_1 \neq 0$ . Let  $p_n$  be the coefficient of  $x^n$  in  $(1 + A(x))^{\alpha n + \beta}$  where  $\alpha \neq 0$  and  $\beta$  are fixed complex numbers. Let  $R > 0$  be a fixed integer.*

(i) *If  $na_{n-1} \sim \gamma a_n$ , then*

$$p_n = \alpha e^{\alpha \gamma} n a_n + \mathcal{O}(a_n).$$

(ii) *If  $na_{n-1} = o(a_n)$ , then*

$$p_n = \sum_{k=0}^{R-1} d_{n,k} a_{n-k} + \mathcal{O}(n^{R+1} a_{n-R}),$$

where  $D_n(x) = \sum d_{n,k} x^k = (\alpha n + \beta)(1 + A(x))^{\alpha n + \beta - 1}$ .

(iii) *In either case,  $p_{n-1} = o(p_n)$  and*

$$\sum_{k=R}^{n-R} |p_k p_{n-k}| = \mathcal{O}(p_{n-R}).$$

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**Theorem 2.** Let  $A(x)$  be a formal power series with coefficients  $a_n$  satisfying  $na_{n-1} = o(a_n)$ . Let  $F(x)$  be a power series with non-zero radius of convergence,  $f_0 = 0$  and  $f_1 \neq 0$ . Fix  $R > 0$ . The coefficient of  $x^n$  in  $A(F(x))$  is

$$\sum_{k=0}^{R-1} e_k a_{n-k} + \mathcal{O}(f_1^n n^R a_{n-R}),$$

where  $e_k$  is the coefficient of  $x^n$  in  $F(x)^{n-k}$ .

## 2. Applications

Let  $[x^n]f(x)$  denote the coefficient of  $x^n$  in  $f(x)$ . The Lagrange inversion formula states

$$[x^n]g(h^{-1}(x)) = \frac{1}{n} [x^{n-1}]g'(x)(x/h(x))^n.$$

We give some examples of using this with Theorem 1 to obtain asymptotics.

**Example 1. Blocks of graphs.** Let  $G(x)$ ,  $C(x)$  and  $B(x)$  be the exponential generating functions for graphs, connected graphs and blocks respectively. (All graphs are labelled.) It is known [4, (1.2.6) and (1.3.3)] that

$$C(x) = \log(1 + G(x)), \quad \log C'(x) = B'(xC'(x)). \quad (2.1)$$

Since  $g_n = 2^{n(n-1)/2}$ , (2.1a) can be used to determine  $c_n$ :

$$c_n = \sum_{k=0}^{R-1} f_k g_{n-k} + \mathcal{O}(g_{n-R}), \quad (2.2)$$

where  $F(x) = (1 + G(x))^{-1}$ . (See [8, Theorem 2] or [2, Corollary 4].) Using Lagrange inversion on (2.1b) with  $h(x) = xC'(x)$  and  $g(u) = \log C'(u)$  gives

$$\frac{b_{n+1}}{n!} = \frac{1}{n} [x^{n-1}] \left( \frac{C''(x)}{C'(x)} \left( \frac{1}{C'(x)} \right)^n \right),$$

so

$$b_{n+1} = (n-1)! [x^{n-1}] \left( -\frac{1}{n} (C'(x))^{-n} \right)' = -(n-1)! [x^n] (C'(x))^{-n}.$$

Since  $c_n \sim g_n = 2^{n(n-1)/2}$ , Theorem 1(ii) with  $A = C' - 1$ ,  $\alpha = -1$ ,  $\beta = 0$ , gives a formula for the number of biconnected graphs. The main calculations are

$$F(x) = 1 - x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \cdots, \quad A(x) = C'(x) - 1 = x + 2x^2 + \cdots,$$

$$D_n(x) = -n + (n^2 + n)(x - (n-4)x^2/2 + \cdots),$$

$$c_n = g_n - ng_{n-1} + \mathcal{O}(n^3 g_{n-3}), \quad \text{where } g_n = 2^{n(n-1)/2},$$

$$p_n = -\frac{1}{(n-1)!} (c_{n+1} - (n^2 + n)c_n + (n^3 - n)(n-4)c_{n-1}/2 + \mathcal{O}(n^6 c_{n-2}))$$

$$= -\frac{1}{(n-1)!} (g_{n+1} - (n+1)^2 g_n + n(n+1)(n-2)^2 g_{n-1}/2 + \mathcal{O}(n^6 g_{n-2})).$$

(2.3)

Thus

$$b_n = g_n - n^2 g_{n-1} + n(n-1)(n-3)^2 g_{n-2}/2 + \mathcal{O}(n^6 g_{n-3}), \quad (2.4)$$

where  $g_n = 2^{n(n-1)/2}$ .

This gives the well-known result that almost all graphs are biconnected and furthermore gives an asymptotic estimate of the graphs which are not biconnected, namely  $n^2 g_{n-1}$ .

This idea can also be used for bipartite blocks. In this case (2.1a) becomes  $C(x) = \frac{1}{2} \log(1 + M(x))$ , where  $M(x)$  is the exponential generating function for  $M_n = \sum \binom{n}{i} 2^{i(n-i)}$ , the number of bicolored graphs [5]. In this case

$$\begin{aligned} b_n &= c_n - n(n-1)c_{n-1} + \mathcal{O}(n^4 c_{n-2}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} M_n - \frac{(n^2 - n + 2)}{2} M_{n-1} + \mathcal{O}(M^4 M_{n-2}). \end{aligned} \quad (2.5)$$

The leading term was obtained by Wright [9].

Bessinger [1, Sec. 4.3] gives a variety of applications of the equation

$$A(x) = 1 + I(xA(x)), \quad (2.6)$$

to 'noncrossing compositions'. Here  $A$  and  $I$  are ordinary generating functions. She uses Lagrange inversion to obtain

$$i_n = -\frac{1}{n-1} [x^n] a(x)^{1-n}. \quad (2.7)$$

We consider asymptotics for some of her applications.

**Example 2. Permutations without invariant subintervals.** Let  $i_n$  be the number of permutations  $\pi$  on  $[1, n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$  with no invariant proper subintervals  $[i, j]$ . ( $S$  is invariant if  $\pi(S) = S$ .) Then [1, p. 90] (2.5) holds with  $a_n = n!$ . Theorem 1(i) can be used for (2.7) with  $\alpha = -1$ ,  $\beta = 1$ , to obtain  $i_n = n!/e + \mathcal{O}((n-1)!)$ . In other words, almost every derangement has no invariant subintervals, as one might expect.

**Example 3. Irreducible partitions.** A partition of  $[1, n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$  is called irreducible if no proper subinterval of  $[1, n]$  is a union of blocks. If  $i_n$  is the number of irreducible partitions of  $[1, n]$  and  $a_n$  is the total number where the block sizes are drawn from some specified set  $\mathcal{B}$ , then (2.6) holds. [1, Section 4.3a].

If  $\mathcal{B}$  consists of all possible sizes then  $a_n = B_n$ , the Bell numbers, and  $na_{n-1}/a_n = \log s + o(1)$ , where  $s \log s = n$ . Thus  $a_n$  grows too slowly to apply Theorem 1; however, Theorem 1(i) suggests that  $a_n/i_n \sim e^{\log s} \sim n/\log n$ . This is indeed correct, but entirely different methods are needed [3].

When  $\mathcal{B} = \{k\}$ ,  $a_n$  counts  $k$ -diagrams and  $i_n$  counts linked  $k$ -diagrams. In this case

$$a_n = \begin{cases} n!/(k!)^{n/k} (n/k)! & \text{if } k \mid n, \\ 0 & \text{if } k \nmid n. \end{cases}$$

We cannot apply Theorem 1 directly to  $A(x)$  because many  $a_n$  are zero. Define  $B(x) = A(x^{1/k})$  and consider the equation  $B(x) = 1 + P(xB(x)^k)$ . It is easily seen that  $p_n = i_{nk}$ . With  $xB(x)^k = h(x)$  and  $g(u) = B(u)$ ,

$$i_{nk} = p_n = \frac{1}{n} [x^{n-1}] B'(x) B(x)^{-nk} = \frac{1}{nk-1} [x^n] B(x)^{1-nk}.$$

We have  $b_n/b_{n-1} \sim (nk)^{k-1}/(k-1)!$ , so Theorem 1(i) applies when  $k=2$  to give  $i_n \sim a_n/e$ , a result obtained by Kleitman [6]. When  $k > 2$ , Theorem 1(ii) applies to give

$$i_{nk} = \sum_{i=0}^{R-1} e_{n,i} \frac{(k(n-i))!}{k!^{n-i} (n-i)!} + \mathcal{O}\left(n^R \frac{(k(n-R))!}{k!^{n-R} (n-R)!}\right),$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} e_{n,i} x^i &= \left(1 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{(ki)!}{k!^i i!} x^i\right)^{-nk} \\ &= 1 - nkx + \frac{1}{2}nk \left(nk + 1 - \binom{2k}{k}\right) x^2 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Naturally, entirely different methods are needed for Lagrange inversion when the power series converges. For example, the coefficient of  $x^{n-4}$  in

$$(1-2x)^{2n-1}(1+2x)/(1-x-x^2)^{3n+1}$$

can be estimated using the saddle point method [7].

We now apply Theorem 2.

**Example 4. Communication networks.** Suppose we wish to divide  $n$  people into groups and set up links between groups so that there is a communication path from every group to every other group. If  $K(x)$  is the exponential generating function for the numbers, one easily has  $K(x) = C(e^x - 1)$  where  $C$  is the exponential generating function for connected graphs. Theorem 1 is applicable.

$$k_n = \sum_{k=0}^{R-1} S(n, n-k) c_{n-k} + \mathcal{O}(n^{2R} c_{n-R}),$$

which can also be proved directly. By (2.3)

$$k_n = g_n - \frac{1}{2}n(n-3)g_{n-1} + \frac{1}{24}n(n-1)(3n^2-23n+22)g_{n-2} + \mathcal{O}(n^6 g_{n-3}).$$

One can vary the problem by requiring two distinct paths between every pair of points. Then  $B(x)$  replaces  $C(x)$  and (2.4) replaces (2.3). If we divide  $3n$  people into groups such that each group has 3 equal shifts, then  $e^x - 1$  is replaced by  $\sum ((3k)!/(k!)^3) x^k/k!$ , the parenthesized term counting the number of ways to split  $3k$  people into 3 equal shifts.

**Example 5. Smooth Graphs.** Wright [10] has defined a smooth labelled graph to be a connected graph without loops, multiple edges, or vertices of degree one. He

obtains the exponential generating function  $C(xe^{-x}) - x + \frac{1}{2}x^2$  where  $C(x)$  is given by (2.1a). In this case Theorem 2 applies with  $A(x) = C(x)$  and

$$e_k = [x^n](xe^{-x})^{n-k} = [x^k]e^{-(n-k)x} = \frac{(-1)^k(n-k)^k}{k!}$$

and so the number of smooth graphs on  $n$  vertices is

$$\sum_{k=0}^{R-1} (-1)^k(n-k)^k \binom{n}{k} c_{n-k} + \mathcal{O}(n^{2R}c_{n-R}), \quad (2.8)$$

from which we obtain the expected result that the number of non-smooth connected graphs is asymptotic to  $n^2c_{n-1}$ . We can say more: Interpreting (2.8) as an inclusion-exclusion result, we see that a typical graph which can be made smooth by the deletion of  $k$  points is a connected graph with vertices of degree one attached.

### 3. Proofs

Let  $N = \{1, 2, \dots\}$  and  $|\mathbf{k}| = k_1 + k_2 + \dots$ . We let  $[m, n]$  denote a sum over all  $\mathbf{k} \in N^m$  such that  $|\mathbf{k}| = n$ . A prime denotes the sum restricted to  $k_i \leq N-s$  for all  $i$ . Define  $d_{\mathbf{k}} = d_{k_1}d_{k_2}\dots$ .

**Lemma 1.** Suppose  $d_n \neq 0$  for  $n > 0$ ,  $d_{n-1} = o(d_n)$ , and for some  $R \geq 2$

$$\sum_{k=R}^{n-R} d_k d_{n-k} = \mathcal{O}(d_{n-R}). \quad (3.1)$$

Then for some constant  $C$  independent of  $m$

$$\sum_{[m,n]} |d_{\mathbf{k}}| \leq C^{m-1} |d_{n-m+1}|, \quad (3.2)$$

$$\sum_{[m,n]} |d_{\mathbf{k}}| \leq C^{m-1} |d_{n-s}| \quad \text{for } 0 \leq s \leq R, \quad (3.3)$$

$$\left| \sum_{[m,n]} d_{\mathbf{k}} - m d_1^{m-1} d_{n-m+1} \right| \leq C^m |d_{n-m}|. \quad (3.4)$$

**Proof.** Equations (3.2) and (3.3) are simply Lemma 2 of [2]. To prove (3.4), consider a term in the sum for which at least two  $k_i \neq 1$ . Note that if  $\mathbf{k} \in N^{m-1}$  has some  $k_i \neq 1$ , then  $|\mathbf{k}| \geq m$ . Thus

$$\left| \sum_{[m,n]} d_{\mathbf{k}} - m d_1^{m-1} d_{n-m+1} \right| \leq m \sum_{i=2}^{n-m} \left| d_i \right| \sum_{[m-1, n-i]} |d_{\mathbf{k}}|.$$

By (3.2), the inner sum is at most  $|C^{m-2} d_{n-i-m+2}|$ . Apply (3.1), adjusting  $C$  if necessary.  $\square$

**Proof of Theorem 1.** It is easily seen that  $nd_{n-1} = \mathcal{O}(d_n)$  gives (3.1) for every  $R$ . Note that  $d_n \neq 0$  can be relaxed to  $d_n \neq 0$  for sufficiently large  $n$  to get (3.2) and (3.3) for sufficiently large  $n$  and  $n - m$ . We have

$$p_n = \sum_{m=1}^n \binom{\alpha n + \beta}{m} \sum_{[m,n]} a_k. \quad (3.5)$$

Suppose  $na_{n-1} \sim \gamma a_n$ . Then for every fixed  $m$ ,  $\binom{\alpha n + \beta}{m} \sim (\alpha n)^m / m!$ , and by (3.4)

$$\sum_{[m,n]} a_k = m d_1^{m-1} a_{n-m+1} + \mathcal{O}(a_{n-m}) \sim m a_1^{m-1} a_n (\gamma/n)^{m-1}.$$

Thus, for some slowly growing function  $\omega(n)$

$$\sum_{m=1}^{\omega(n)} \binom{\alpha n + \beta}{m} \sum_{[m,n]} a_k \sim \sum_m \frac{(\alpha m)^m}{m!} m a_1^{m-1} a_n (\gamma/n)^{m-1} \sim \alpha n e^{\alpha a_1 \gamma} a_n.$$

The tail of (3.5) is negligible.

Now suppose  $na_{n-1} = o(a_n)$ . By Lemma 1 we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{[m,n]} a_k &= m \sum_{j=m-1}^{R-1} a_{n-j} \sum_{[m-1,j]} a_k + \sum'_{[m,n]} a_k \\ &= m \sum_{j=m-1}^{R-1} a_{n-j} \sum_{[m-1,j]} a_k + \mathcal{O}(a_{n-R}) \end{aligned}$$

for  $m \leq R$  and for  $m > R$

$$\sum_{[m,n]} a_k \sim \mathcal{O}(C^{m-1} a_{n-m+1}).$$

Thus (3.5) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} p_n &= \sum_{j=0}^{R-1} \left( \sum_{m=1}^{j+1} m \binom{\alpha n + \beta}{m} \sum_{[m-1,j]} a_k \right) a_{n-j} + \mathcal{O}(n^R a_{n-R}) \\ &\quad + \sum_{m>R} \binom{\alpha n + \beta}{m} \mathcal{O}(C^{m-1} a_{n-m+1}). \end{aligned}$$

The parenthesized sum on  $m$  is  $d_{n,j}$ . Using  $na_{n-1} = o(a_n)$ , the final sum is

$$\begin{aligned} &\mathcal{O} \left( \sum_{m>R} \frac{(\alpha n)^m}{m!} C^m n^{R+1-m} a_{n-R} \right) = \\ &= \mathcal{O} \left( \sum_{j \geq 0} \frac{(\alpha n)^{R+j+1}}{j!} C^j n^{-j} a_{n-R} \right) = \mathcal{O}(n^{R+1} a_{n-R}), \end{aligned}$$

which completes the proof of Theorem 1(ii).

Part (iii) follows easily from

$$\frac{np_{n-1}}{p_n} \sim \frac{na_{n-1}}{a_n} = \mathcal{O}(1). \quad \square$$

We now prove Theorem 2, beginning with

**Lemma 2.** Let  $F(x) = \sum f_k x^k$  have radius of convergence greater than  $r$ . Suppose  $f_0 = 0$ ,  $f_1 \neq 0$ , and  $f_i = 0$  for  $1 < i < l$ . Set  $P(x) = \sum |f_k| x^k$ . For  $t \leq n(l-1)/l$  and  $u = \lceil t/(l-1) \rceil$

$$|[x^n]F(x)^{n-t}| \leq \binom{n-t}{u} |f_1|^n P(r)^u / |f_1 r|^{u+t}.$$

**Proof.** To get a nonzero term in the expansion of  $F(x) \cdots F(x)$  we must use  $f_1 x$  or  $f_i x^i$  with  $i \geq l$ . If there are  $w$  of the latter, the power of  $x$  is at least  $lw + (n-t-w)$ . Since we wish  $x^n$ ,  $w \leq u$ . Thus the term contains at least  $n-t-u$  factors of  $f_1 x$  and so

$$|[x^n]F(x)^{n-t}| \leq \binom{n-t}{n-t-u} |f_1|^{n-t-u} [x^{t+u}]P(x)^u.$$

Clearly  $[x^{t+u}]P(x)^u \leq P(r)^u / r^{t+u}$ .  $\square$

**Proof of Theorem 2.** Set  $l=2$  in Lemma 2 and use  $na_{n-1} = o(a_n)$  to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{t \geq R} a_{n-t} [x^n]f(x)^{n-t} &= \\ &= o\left(f_1^n \sum_{t \geq R} \binom{n-t}{t} C^t |a_{n-t}|\right) = o\left(f_1^n \sum_{t \geq R} n^R C^t a_{n-R}/t!\right) = o(f_1^n n^R a_{n-R}). \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

**Note added in proof.** A.M. Odlyzko and H. Wilf have provided (private communication) a quick direct proof that permutations without fixed points are almost all of the permutations without fixed intervals (see Example 2).

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